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AGRICULTURE.

[We devote a large portion of the *National Register* to-day to the publication, *entire*, of Mr. Madison's excellent Address on the subject of Agriculture. Like every thing else which we have seen from the pen of that estimable man, it sheds abundance of light on the topic of which he treats. Whether we view it as a philosophical lecture on the relative proportions of vegetable and animal existences, necessary to the healthful subsistence of each; or as a dissertation upon the nature of soils, manures, and other points of rural economy; it enforces ideas, which, whilst they tend to refine and elevate our moral faculties, inculcate lessons of frugality and diligence. The moralist, in the perusal of this admirable production, is brought to observe more distinctly the intimate connexion which prevails among all created things; the great landed proprietor is taught in what manner he may best guard against the evils of too extended a cultivation; and the small farmer is led to reason upon the circumstances of his condition and to amend them.—One maxim, of the first importance to cultivators on the eastern side of our mountains, may be gathered from this valuable discourse: it is, that *lands long used, and supposed to be much worn out, may be reclaimed, and preserved in a state of perpetual fruitfulness, by proper attention to manures and irrigation;* a fact established by examples drawn from the histories of several countries, and particularly proved by the agricultural condition of China.]

From the Richmond Enquirer.

AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY OF ALBEMARLE.

Tuesday, May 12, 1818.

Resolved, That the thanks of the Agricultural Society of Albemarle are due to the President for the enlightened and important address this day delivered; that the Secretary be, and he is hereby. authorized and required to request a copy for publication; that he cause the said address to be published in the Enquirer; as also, two hundred and fifty copies to be printed in the pamphlet form, one of which he shall transmit to each member of the Society.

Extract from the minutes.

P. MINOR, Sec'y.

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Montpelier, May, 1818.

Dear Sir—I have received your letter of the 12th inst. communicating the request of the Agricultural Society of Albemarle, for a copy of the remarks addressed to it at its last meeting. I cannot decline a compliance with the request, though I have much reason to apprehend, that what the Society received with so partial an ear, will not bear the deliberate perusal, for which an opportunity will be afforded.

With sincere esteem, I remain your friend and servant,

JAMES MADISON.

Peter Minor, Esq. Secretary
of the Agricultural Society of Albemarle.

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ADDRESS BY MR. MADISON,
Late President of the United States.

It having pleased the Society to name me for their presiding member, I feel it a duty, on my first appearing among you, to repeat my acknowledgements for that honorary distinction; with the assurances of my sincere desire to promote the success of an establishment which has in view so valuable an object as that of improving the agriculture of our country.

The faculty of cultivating the earth, and of rearing animals, by which food is increased beyond the spontaneous supplies of nature, belongs to man alone. No other terrestrial being has received a higher gift than an instinct, like that of the beaver or the ant, which merely hoards for future use the food spontaneously furnished by nature.

As this peculiar faculty gives to man a pre-eminence over irrational animals; so it is the use made of it by some, and the neglect of it by other communities, that distinguishes them from each other, in the most important features of the human character.

The contrast between the enlightened and refined nations on some parts of the earth, and the rude and wretched tribes on others, has its foundation in this distinction. Civilization is never seen without agriculture, nor has agriculture ever prevailed where the civilized arts did not make their appearance.

But, closely as agriculture and civilization are allied, they do not keep pace with each other. There is probably a much higher state of agriculture in China and Japan, than in many other countries far more advanced in the improvements of civilized life. It is surely no small reproach to the latter, that, with so great a superiority in science, and in the fuller possession of the auxiliary arts, they should suffer themselves to be outstripped in the very art by which both are essentially distinguished from the brute creation.

It must not be inferred, however, from the capacities and the motives of man for an artificial increase of the productions of the earth, that the transition from the hunter or even the herdsman state to the agricultural, is a matter of course. The first steps in this transition are attended with difficulty; and what is more, with disinclination.

Without a knowledge of the metals, and the implements made of them, the process of opening and stirring the soil, is not an easy operation, though one perhaps not requiring more effort and contrivance than produced the instruments used by savages in war and in the chase.

And that there is a disinclination in human nature to exchange the savage for the civilized life, cannot be questioned. We need not look for

proofs beyond our own neighborhood. The Indian tribes have ever shown an aversion to the change. Neither the persuasive examples of plenty and comfort, derived from the culture of the earth by their white brethren, nor the lessons and specimens of tillage placed in the midst of them, and seconded by actual sufferings from a deficient and precarious subsistence, have converted them from their strong propensities and habitual pursuits. In the same spirit they always betray an anxious disposition to return to their pristine life, after being weaned from it by time, and apparently moulded by intellectual and moral instruction, into the habits and tastes of an agricultural people. A still more conclusive evidence of the bias of human nature is seen in the familiar fact, that our own people, nursed and reared in these habits and tastes, easily slide into those of the savage, and are rarely reclaimed to civilized society with their own consent.

Had the Europeans, on their arrival, found this continent destitute of human inhabitants, whose dangerous neighborhood kept them in a compact and agricultural state, and had their communication with the countries they left been discontinued, they might have spread themselves into the forests, where game and fruit would have abounded, and gradually forgetting the arts no longer necessary to their immediate wants, have degenerated into savage tribes.

An admired historian,* in his inquiry into the origin of the American savages, represents any such degeneracy as impossible. He lays it down as a certain principle, that the necessary arts of life, when once introduced among a people, can never be lost; that the dominion over inferor animals once enjoyed, will never be abandoned; and that America, consequently, must have been peopled from a country as uncivilized as itself. Yet he derives the American savages generally from the Tartars, whose example must have taught them the use of certain animals, for which a substitute might have been found in the bison or buffalo at least, (the same animal with the cow) if not in the elk, the moose, or the caraboo; and he regards the Esquimaux, a tribe distinguished in several respects, for their rude condition, as descendants from the Greenlanders, (of the same modes of life with themselves) who were a colony from Norway, planted in the ninth century, an epoch prior to which the Norwegians had made such progress in the arts, as to be capable of formidable maritime expeditions. The Greenland colony, therefore, must have undergone a degeneracy from the condition of its parent country Without supposing the possibility of a transition from a better state of human society to a savage state, how would the learned historian have accounted for the introduction of the savage state at all?

The bent of human nature may be traced on the chart of our own country. The manufacturer readily exchanges the loom for the plough, in opposition often to his own interest, as well as to that of his country. The cultivator, in situations presenting an option, prefers to the labors of the field the more easy employment of rearing a herd. And as the game of the forest is approached, the hunting life displays the force of its attractions. Where do we behold a march in the opposite direction? the hunter becoming the herdsman; the latter a follower of the plough; and the last repairing to the manufactory or the workshop.

Such, indeed is the fascination of that personal independence which belongs to the uncivilized state, and such the disrelish and contempt of the monotonous labor of tillage, compared with the exciting occupations of the chase, or with the indolence enjoyed by those who subsist chiefly on the mere bounties of nature, or on the migratory flocks, that a voluntary relinquishment of these latter modes of life is little to be expected. We certainly perceive nothing in the character of our savage neighbors from which it could be inferred, that even the germs of agriculture, observed in their spots of maize, and a few other cultivated plants, would ever be developed into the extent implied by an agricultural life. To that little resource, combined with the game furnished by the forest, and by the lake, or the stream, their population and habits are adjusted. There may be said, in fact, to be a plenum of the former; because it is commensurate with their food, and this cannot be increased without a change of habits, which being founded in natural propensities, do not change of themselves.

The first introduction of agriculture among a savage people, appears accordingly never to have taken place without some extraordinary interposition. Where it has not been obtruded by colonies transplanted from agricultural countries, as from Phœnicia and Egypt into Greece, and from Greece herself among her savage neighbors, the revolution has proceeded from some individual, whose singular endowments and supernatural pretensions, had given him an ascendancy for the purpose. All these great reformers, in ancient times, were regarded as more than men, and ultimately worshipped as gods. A very remarkable example, of modern date, is found in the revolution from the savage to the agricultural state, said to have been brought about by Manco Capac, among the Peruvians, to whom he represented himself as the offspring of the sun.

Agriculture, once effectually commenced, may proceed of itself, under impulses of its own creation. The mouths fed by it increasing and the supplies of nature decreasing, necessity becomes a spur to industry; which finds another spur in the advantages incident to the acquisition of property in the civilized state. And thus a progressive agriculture, and a progressive population ensue.

But, although no determinate limit presents itself to the increase of food, and to a population commensurate with it, other than the limited productiveness of the earth itself, we can scarcely be warranted in supposing, that all the productive powers of its surface can be made subservient to the use of man, in exclusion of all the plants and animals not entering into his stock of subsistence; that all the elements and combinations of elements in the earth, the atmosphere, and the water, which now support such various and such numerous discriptions of created beings, animate and inanimate, could be withdrawn from that general destination and appropriated to the exclusive support and increase of the human part of the creation; so that the whole habitable earth should be as full of people, as the spots most crowded now are or might be made, and as destitute as those spots, of the plants and animals not used by man.

The supposition cannot be well reconciled with that symmetry in the face of nature which de-

* Dr. Robertson.

rives new beauty from every insight that can be gained into it. It is forbidden also by the principles and laws which operate in various departments of her economy, falling within the scope of common observation, as well as within that of philosophic researches.

The earth contains not less than thirty or forty thousand kinds of plants; not less than six or seven hundred of birds; nor less than three or four hundred of quadrupeds; to say nothing of the thousand species of fishes. Of reptiles and insects there are more than can be numbered. To all these must be added the swarms and varieties of animalcules and minute vegetable not visible to the natural eye, but whose existence is probably connected with that of visible animals and plants.

On comparing this vast profusion and multiplicity of beings with the few grains and grasses, the few herbs and roots, and the few fowls and quadrupeds, which make up the short list adapted to the wants of man, it is difficult to believe that it lies with him, so to remodel the work of nature as it would be remodelled, by a destruction not only of individuals, but of entire species; and not only of a few species, but of every species, with the very few exceptions which he might spare for his own accommodation.

Such a multiplication of the human race, at the expense of the rest of the organized creation, implies that the food of all plants is composed of elements equally and indiscriminately nourishing all, and which consequently may be wholly appropriated to the one or few plants best fitted for human use.

Whether the food or constituent matter of vegetables be furnished from the earth, the air, and water, and whether directly, or by either through the medium of the others, no sufficient ground appears for the inference that the food for all is the same.

Different plants require different soils; some flourishing in sandy, some in clayey, some in moist, some in dry soils; some in warm, some in cold situations. Many grow only in water—and a few subsist in the atmosphere. The forms, the textures, and the qualities of plants are still more diversified. That things so various and dissimilar in their organizations, their constitutions, and their characters, should be wholly nourished by, and consist of, precisely the same elements, requires more proof than has yet been afforded.

A case which has been relied on to prove that different foods are not necessary for different plants, is that of grafting or inoculating one kind of plant on another kind; the sap obtained by the stock for itself being found to feed and perfect the graft. But this operation has its limits. It does not extend beyond plants having a certain affinity. The apple tree may be planted on the pear or quince. It will not succeed on the peach or the cherry. If the cases prove that the same food suffices for the apple and the pear, they equally prove that different foods are required for the apple and the peach. It is said even, that the fruit from the peach graft on the almond is not precisely the same with that from a peach graft on the plum.

It may be offered as another argument to the same effect, that all animal and vegetable decompositions answer indiscriminately as manures. The fact is not precisely so. Certain manures succeed best with certain plants. It is true, nevertheless, that animal and vegetable substances, in a decomposed state, are, generally, manures for plants. Fish even, an animal from the water, is successfully used as a manure for Indian corn and other crops. But this and similar examples prove only that some ingredients are the same in all animals and plants; not that all the ingredients in each are the same.

The chemist, though as yet a fellow student, as much as a preceptor of the agriculturist, justly claims attention to the result of his processes. From that source we learn that the number of known elements, not yet recomposable, is between forty and fifty; that about seven or eight belong to the organ of plants; that different elements enter into the composition of the same plant; and that they are combined in different numbers and in different proportions, in different plants. Supposing then, as must be supposed, that these different elements, in their actual quantities and proportions, are adapted to the quantities and the proportions of the existing varieties of plants; it would happen in so great a change as that in question with respect to the number and variety of plants, that the quantities and the proportions of the elements would not be adapted to the particular kinds and numbers of plants retained by man for his own use. Like the types of the alphabet, apportioned to the words composing a particular book, when applied to another book, materially different in its contents, there would be, of some, a deficiency, of others a useless surplus.

Were it less difficult to admit that all the sourses of productiveness could be exclusively appropriated to the food of man, is it certain that an obstacle to his indefinite multiplication would not be encountered in one of the relations between the atmosphere and organized beings?

Animals, including man, and plants, may be regarded as the most important part of the terrestrial creation. They are pre-eminent in their attributes; and all nature teems with their varieties and their multitudes, visible and invisible. To all of them the atmosphere is the breath of life. Deprived of it they all equally perish. But it answers this purpose by virtue of its appropriate constitution and character. What are these?

The atmosphere is not a simple, but a compound body. In its least compound state, it is understood to contain, besides what is called vital air, others noxious in themselves, yet, without a portion of which, the vital air becomes noxious. But the atmosphere in its natural state, and in its ordinary communication with the organized world, comprises various ingredients, derived from the use made of it, by the existing variety of animals and plants. The exhalations and perspirations, the effluvia and transpirations of these are continually charging the atmosphere with a heterogeneous variety and immense quantity of matter, which, together, must contribute to the character which fits it for its destined purpose of supporting the life and health of organized beings. It is unreasonable to suppose, that if, instead of the actual composition and character of the animal and vegetable creation, to which the atmosphere is now accommodated, such a composition and character of that creation were substituted, as would result from a reduction of the whole to man and a few kinds of animals and plants; is the supposition unreasonable, that the change might essentially affect the aptitude of

the atmosphere for the functions required of it; and that so great an innovation might be found, in this respect, not to accord with the order and economy of nature?

The relation of the animal part and the vegetable part of the creation to each other, through the medium of the atmosphere, comes in aid of the reflections suggested by the general relation between the atmosphere and both. It seems to be now well understood, that the atmosphere when respired by animals, becomes unfitted for their further use, and fitted for the absorption of vegetables; and that when evolved by the latter, it is refitted for the respiration of the former: an interchange being thus kept up, by which this breath of life is received by each, in a wholesome state, in return for it in an unwholesome one.

May it not be concluded from this admirable arrangement and beautiful feature in the economy of nature, that if the whole class of animals were extinguished, the use of the atmosphere by the vegetable class alone would exhaust it of its life-supporting power; that, in like manner, if the whole class of vegetables were extinguished, the use of it by the animal class, alone, would deprive it of its fit ess for their support? And if such would be the effect of the entire destruction of either class, in relation to the other, the inference seems to press itself upon us, that so vast a change in the proportions of each class to the other, and in the species composing the respective classes, as that in question, might not be compatible with the continued existence and health of the remaining species of the two classes.

The immensity of the atmosphere, compared with the mass of animals and vegetables, forms an apparent objection only to this view of the subject. The comparison could at most suggest questions as to the period of time necessary to exhaust the atmosphere of its unrenewed capacity to keep alive animal or vegetable nature, when deprived, either, of the support of the other. And this period contracts itself at once to the imagination, when it is recollected that the immensity of the atmosphere is the effect of its elasticity and rarefaction. We know from the barometer, that condensed to the specific gravity of mercury, its rise above the surface of the earth would be but about 30 inches; and from the well pump, that condensed to the specific gravity only of water, which is nearly the same with that of the human body, its rise would be little more than as many feet; that is, a little more than five times the human stature. It is found that a single human person employs in respiration not less than sixteen or eighteen times his own weight of common air, in every twenty-four hours. In different degrees, some greater, some less, the case is the same with most other animals. Plants make a correspondent use of air for their purposes.

Other views of the economy of nature coincident with the preceding. There is a known tendency in all organized beings to multiply beyond the degree necessary to keep up their actual numbers. It is a wise provision of nature—1, to guard against the failure of the species: 2, to afford in the surplus, a food for animals, whether subsisting on vegetables, or on other animals which subsist on vegetables. Nature has been equally provident in guarding against an excessive multiplication of any one species which might too far encroach on others, by subjecting each, when unduly multiplying itself, to be arrested in its progress by the effect of the multiplication—1, in producing a deficiency of food; and where that may not happen, 2, in producing a state of the atmosphere unfavorable to life and health. All animals as well as plants sicken and die in a state too much crowded. It is the case with our domestic animals of every sort, where no scarcity of food can be the cause. To the same laws mankind are equally subject. An increase, not consisting with the general plan of nature, arrests itself. According to the degree in which the number thrown together exceeds the due proportion of space and air, disease and mortality ensue. It was the vitiated air alone which put out human life in the crowded hole of Calcutta. In a space somewhat enlarged, the effect would have been slower, but not less certain. In all confined situations, from the dungeon to the crowded workhouses, and from these to the compact population of overgrown cities, the atmosphere becomes, in corresponding degrees, unfitted, by reiterated use, for sustaining human life and health. Were the atmosphere breathed in cities not diluted and displaced by fresh supplies from the surrounding country, the mortality would soon become general. Were the surrounding country thickly peopled and not refreshed in like manner, the decay of health, though a later, would be a necessary consequence. And were the whole habitable earth covered with a dense population, wasteful maladies might be looked for, that would thin the numbers into a healthy proportion.

Were the earth in every productive spot, and in every spot capable of being made productive, appropriated to the food of man; were the spade substituted for the plough and all animals consuming the food of man, or food for which human food might be substituted, banished from existence, so as to produce the maximum of population on the earth, there would be more than an hundred individuals, for every one now upon it. In the actual population of many countries, it brings on occasional epidemics to be traced to no other origin than the state of the atmosphere. Increase the numbers ten or twenty fold, and can it be supposed that they would at any time find the breath of life in a condition to support it; or if that supposition be admissable when limited to a single country, can it be admitted, when not only the contiguous countries, but the whole earth was equally crowded.

Must we then adopt the opinion entertained by some philosophers, that no variation whatever in the numbers and proportions of the organized beings belonging to our globe, is permitted by the system of nature; that the number of species and of individuals, in the animal and vegetable empires, since they attained a destined complement, has been, and always must be the same; that the only change possible, is in local augmentations and diminutions which balance each other, and thus maintain the established and unalterable order of things?

This would be the opposite extreme to that which has been rejected. Man, though so similar in his physical constiution to many other animals, is essentially distinguished from all other organized beings, by the intellectual and moral powers with which he is endowed. He possesses a reason and a will, by which he can act on mat-

ter organized and unorganized. He can, by the exercise of these peculiar powers, increase his subsistence, by which his numbers may be increased beyond the spontaneous supplies of nature: and it would be a reasonable conclusion, that, making, as he does, in his capacity of an intelligent and voluntary agent and integral part of the terrestrial system, the other parts of the system are so framed as not to be altogether unsusceptible of his agency, and unpliable to its effects.

This reasonable conclusion is confirmed by the fact, that the capacity of man, derived from his reason and his will, has effected an increase of particular plants and animals conductive to an increase of his own race; and a diminution of the numbers if not of the species of plants and animals displaced by that increase.

Most, if not all of our domesticated animals, probably exceed the numbers, which, without the intervention of man, would be their natural amount. Whilst the animals preying on, or interfering with them, are proportionally reduced in their numbers

The case is the same with cultivated plants. They are increased beyond their natural amount —and banish, or proportionally reduce such as interfere with them.

Nor can it be said that these changes, made by human art and industry in some regions, are balanced by corresponding changes, made by nature, in other regions. Take, for examples, the articles of wheat, rice, millet and maize, which are the chief food for civilized man, and which are now spread over such immense spaces. It is not possible to regard them as occupying no more than their original and fixed proportions of the earth; and that in other parts of it they have disappeared in the same degree in which they are thus artificially extended.—These grains belong to the torrid and temperate zones only; and so great a portion of these zones have been explored, that it is certain they could not have been displaced from other parts of the globe, in the degree in which they abound where they are now cultivated, and where it is certain they owe their abundance to cultivation. There must consequently be an absolute increase of them produced by the agency of man.

Take more particularly, for an example, the article of rice, which constitutes so large a portion of human food. The lattitudes to which its growth is limited by the nature of the plant, are for the most part so well known, that it may be assumed for an unquestioned fact, that this grain cannot always have prevailed any where in the extent in which it is now cultivated. And it is equally certain, that the vegatable productions belonging to the same climates, which must have been displaced by its cultivation, have not received an equivalent introduction and extension elsewhere.

It is remarkable, that the vegetable productions most extensively used as human food, are but little, if at all, found in their indigenous state; whether that state be the same as their present one, or a state from which the same improvable into their present state. They seem, indeed, not likely to flourish extensively in situations not prepared by the hand of man. The potatoe, so recently brought into use, and now spreading itself over so great a surface, can barely be traced to a native state in the mountains of Chili; nor can it be believed that previous to the adoption by man, it ever existed in the extent to which cultivation is now carrying it.

These views of the subject seem to authorise the conclusion, that, although there is a proportion between the animal and vegetable classes of beings on our globe, and between the species in each class, with respect to which nature does permit such a change as would result from a destruction of the animals and vegetables not used by man: and a multiplication of the human race, and of the several species of animals and vegetables used by it, sufficient to fill up the void; yet, that there is a degree of change which the peculiar faculties of man enable him to make, and by making which his fund of subsistence, and his numbers, may be augmented; there being, at the same time, whenever his numbers, and the change exceed the admitted degree, a tendency in that excess to correct itself

Could it, however, be supposed that the established system and symmetry of nature required the number of human beings on the globe to be always the same; that the only change permitted in relation to them, was in their distribution over it, still, as the blessings of existence to that number would materially depend on the parts of the globe on which they may be thrown; on the degree in which their situation may be convenient or crowded; and on the nature of their political and social institutions, motives would not be wanting to obtain for our portion of the earth its fullest share, by improving the resources of human subsistence, according to the fair measure of its capacity. For, in what other portion of equal extent will be found climates more friendly to the health, or congenial to the feelings of its inhabitants? In what other, a soil yielding more food with not more labor? And, above all, where will be found institutions equally securing the blessings of personal independence, and of social enjoyment? The enviable condition of the people of the United States is often too much ascribed to the physical advantages of their soil and climate, and to their uncrowded situation. Much is certainly due to these causes—but a just estimate of the happiness of our country will never overlook what belongs to the fertile activity of a free people, and the benign influence of a responsible government.

In proportion as we relax the hypothesis which makes the aggregate number of mankind unsusceptible of change, and believe that the resources of our country may not only contribute to the greater happiness of a given number, but to the augmentation of the number enjoying a greater happiness, the motives become stronger for the improvement and extension of them.

But, whilst all are sensible that agriculture is the basis of population and prosperity, it cannot be denied that the study and practice of its true principles have hitherto been too generally neglected in the United States and that this state has at least its full share of the blame. Now only, for the first time, notwithstanding several meritorious examples of earlier date, a general attention seems to be awakened to the necessity of a reform. Patriotic societies, the best agents for effecting it, are pursuing the object with the animation and intelligence which characterize the efforts of a self-governed people, whatever be the objects to which they may be directed.

Among these promising institutions, I cannot glance at all the names of those composing that of Albemarle, without being assured, that its full quota of information will be furnished to the general stock. I regret only, that my own competency bears so little proportion to my wishes to co-operate with them. That I may not be thought, however, deficient in good will, as well as in other requisites, I shall venture on the task, a task the least difficult, of pointing out some of the most prevalent errors in our husbandry, and which appear to be among those which may merit the attention of the society, and the instructive examples of its members.

1. The error first to be noticed, is that of cultivating land, either naturally poor or impoverished by cultivation. This error, like many others, is the effect of habit, continued after the reason for it has failed. Whilst there was an abundance of fresh and fertile soil, it was the interest of the cultivator to spread his labor over as great a surface as he could. Land being cheap and labor dear, and the land co-operating powerfully with the labor, it was profitable to draw as much as possible from the land. Labor is now comparatively cheaper and land dearer. Where labor has risen in price fourfold, land his risen tenfold. It might be profitable, therefore, now to contract the surface over which labor is spread, even if the soil retain its freshness and fertility. But this is not the case. Much of the fertile soil is exhausted, and unfertile soils are brought into cultivation; and both co-operating less with labor in producing the crop, it is necessary, to consider how far labor can be profitably exerted on them; whether it ought not to be applied towards making them fertile, rather than in further impoverishing them, or whether it might not be more profitably applied to the mechanical occupations, or to domestic manufactures?

In the old countries of Europe, where labor is cheap and land dear, the object is to augment labor, and contract the space on which it is employed. In the new settlements taking place in this country, the original practice here may be rationally pursued. In the old settlements, the reason for the practice in Europe is becoming daily less inapplicable; and we ought to yield to the change of circumstances, by forbearing to waste our labor on land which, besides not paying for it, is still more impoverished, and rendered more difficult to be made rich. The crop which is of least amount gives the blow most mortal to the soil. It has not been a very rare thing to see land under the plough, not producing enough to feed the ploughman and his horse; and it is in such cases that the death-blow is given. The goose is killed without even obtaining the coveted egg.

There cannot be a more rational principle in the code of agriculture, than that every farm which is in good heart, should be kept so; that every one not in good heart should be made so; and that what is right as to the farm, generally, is so as to every part of every farm. Any system, therefore, or want of system, which tends to make a rich farm poor, or does not tend to make a poor farm rich, cannot be good for the owner; whatever it may be for the tenant or superintendent, who has transient interest only in it. The profit, where there is any, will not balance the loss of intrinsic value sustained by the land.

2. The evil of pressing too hard upon the land has also been much increased by the bad mode of ploughing it. Shallow ploughing, and ploughing up and down hilly land, have, by exposing the loossened soil to be carried off by rains, hastened, more than any thing else, the waste of its fertility. When the mere surface is pulverised, moderate rains on land but little uneven, if ploughed up and down, gradually wear it away. And heavy rains, on hilly land, ploughed in that manner, soon produce a like effect, notwithstanding the improved practice of deeper ploughing. How have the beauty and value of this red ridge of country suffered from this cause? And how much is due to the happy improvement introduced by a member of this society, whom I need not name* by a cultivation in horizontal drills, with a plough adapted to it? Had the practice prevailed from the first settlement of the country, the general fertility would have been more than the double of what the red hills, and indeed all other hilly lands, now possess; and the scars and sores now defacing them would no where be seen. Happily, experience is proving, that this remedy, aided by a more rational management in other respects, is adequate to the purpose of healing what has been wounded, as well as of preserving the health of what has escaped the calamity. It is truly gratifying to observe how fast the improvement is spreading from the parent example. The value of our red hills, under a mode of cultivation which guards their fertility against wasting rains, is probably exceeded by that of no uplands whatever; and without that advantage, they are exceeded in value by almost all other. They are little more than a lease for years.

Besides the inestimable advantage from horizontal ploughing, in protecting the soil against the wasting effect of rains, there is a great one in its preventing the rains themselves from being lost to the crop. The Indian corn is the crop which exposes the soil to be carried off by the rains: and it is, at the same time, the crop which most needs them. Where the land is not only hilly, but the soil thirsty, (as it is particularly throughout this mountainous range) the preservation of the rain as it falls, between the drilled ridges, is of peculiar importance; and its gradual sending downwards to the roots, is the best possible mode of supplying them with moisture.

In the old method of ploughing shallow, with the furrows up and down, the rain as well as the soil was lost.

3. The neglect of manures is another error which claims particular notice. It may be traced to the same cause with our excessive cropping. In the early stages of our agriculture, it was more convenient, and more profitable, to bring new land into cultivation, than to improve exhausted land. The failure of new land has long called for the improvement of old land, but habit has kept us deaf to the call.

Nothing is more certain than that continual cropping, without manure, deprives the soil of its fertility. It is equally certain that fertility may be preserved or restored, by giving to the earth animal or vegetable manure, equivalent to the matter taken from it, and that a perpetual fertility is not, in itself, incompatible with an uninterrupted succession of crops. The Chinese, it is said, smile at the idea, that land needs rest, as if, like animals, it had a sense of fatigue.—Their soil does not need rest, because an industrious use is

* Col. T. M. Randolph.

made of every fertilizing particle that can contribute towards replacing what has been drawn from it. And this is the more practicable with them, as almost the whole of what is grown on their farms, is consumed within them. That a restoration to the earth of all that annually grows on it, prevents its impoverishment, is sufficiently seen in our forests, where the annual exuviæ of the trees and plants, replace the fertility of which they deprive the earth. Where frequent fires destroy the leaves, and whatever else is annually dropped on the earth, it is well known that land becomes poorer. This destruction of the natural crop having the same impoverishing effect as a removal of a cultivated crop. A still stronger proof that an annual restoration to the earth of all its annual product will perpetuate its productiveness, is seen where our fields are left uncultivated and unpastured In this case, the soil receiving from the decay of the spontaneous weeds and grasses more fertility than they extract from it, is for a time at least improved, not impoverished. Its improvement may be explained, by the fertilizing matter which the weeds and grasses derive from water and the atmosphere, which forms a nett gain to the earth. At what point or from what cause the formation and accumulation of vegetable mould from this gain ceases, is not, perhaps, very easy to be explained. That it does cease, is proved by the stationary condition of the surface of the earth in old forests; and that the amount of the accumulation varies with the nature of the subjacent earth is equally certain. It seems to depend also, on the species of trees and plants which happen to contribute the materials for the vegetable mould.

But the most eligible mode of preserving the richness, and of enriching the poverty, of a farm is certainly that of applying to the soil a sufficiency of annual and vegetable matter in a putrified state, or a state ready for putrefaction; in order to procure which, too much care cannot be observed in saving every material furnished by the farm. This resource was among the earliest discoveries of men living by agriculture; and a proper use of it has been made a test of good husbandry, in all countries, ancient and modern, where its principles and profits have been studied.

Some farmers of distinction, headed by Tull, supposed that mere earth, in a pulverized state, was sufficient without manure for the growth of plants; and consequently that continued pulverization would render the soil perpetually productive; a theory which never would have occurred to a planter of tobacco or of Indian corn, who finds the soil annually producing less and less, under a constant pulverizing course. The known experiment of Van Helmont seemed to favor the opposite theory, that the earth parted with nothing towards the plants growing on it If there were no illusion in the case, the earth used by him must at least have been destitute of vegetable mould: for in an experiment by Woodhouse, a garden mould was diminished in its weight by a plant which grew in it. And the latest chemical examination of the subject coincides with the general opinion of practical husbandmen, that the substance of plants partakes of the substance of the soil.

The idea is indeed very natural that vegetable matter which springs from the earth, and of itself returns to the earth, should be one source at least of the earth's capacity to re-produce vegetable matter.

It has been asked, how it happens that Egypt and Sicily, which have for ages been exporting their agricultural produce, without a return of any equivalent produce, have not lost their reproductive capacity. One answer has been, that they have lost no small degree of it. If the fact be otherwise with regard to Egypt, it might be accounted for by the fertilizing inundations of the Nile. With regard to Sicily, there may be something in the system of husbandry, or some particular local circumstances, which countervail the continued asportation of the fruits of the soil. But it is far more probable that the island is less productive than it once was. It is certainly less of a grannary for other countries now than it was when it received that title from the ancient Romans. And its population being diminished, the internal consumption must also be diminished. If a single farm is rendered less productive, by a continued removal of its crops, without any adequate returns, no reason occurs why it should not happen to a number of farms multiplied to the extent of a whole country.

And that individual farms do lose their fertility, in proportion as crops are taken from them, and returns of the manure neglected, is a fact not likely to be questioned.

If it were, Virginia, unfortunately, is but too capable of furnishing the proofs. Her prevailing crops have been very exhausting, and the use of manure has been particularly neglected.

Tobacco and Indian corn, which, for a long time, on the east side of the Blue Mountains, were the articles almost exclusively cultivated, and which continue to be cultivated, the former extensively, the latter universally, are known to be great impoverishers of the soil Wheat, which has for a number of years, formed a large portion of the general crop, is also an exhausting crop. So are rye and oats, which enter occasionally into our farming system.

With so many consumers of the fertility of the earth, and so little attention to the means of repairing their ravages, no one can be surprised at the impoverished face of the country; whilst every one ought to be desirous of aiding in the work of reformation.

The first and main step towards it is to make the thieves restore as much as possible of the stolen fertility. On this, with other improvements which may be made in our husbandry, we must depend for the rescue of our farms from their present degraded condition.

Of tobacco, not a great deal more than one half of the entire plant is carried to market. The residue is an item on the list of manures; and it is known to be in its quality a very rich one. The crop of tobacco, however, though of great value, covers but a small proportion of our cultivated ground; and its offal can, of course, contribute but inconsiderably to the general stock of manure. It is probable, also, that what it does contribute has been more carefully used as a manure than any other article furnished by our crops.

The article which constitutes our principal manure is wheat straw. It is of much importance, therefore, to decide aright on the mode of

using it. There are three modes. 1. Carrying it from the farm yard; after having passed through, or being trodden and enriched by cattle. In that mode, the greater part of it must be used, if used at all; the straw going through that process being a necessary part of the food allotted to the cattle. To derive the full advantage from it, it ought to be hauled out before the substance has been wasted by rain, by the sun, and by the wind; and to be buried in the earth as soon after as possible. 2. Spreading the straw on the surface of the ground. Many respectable farmers are attached to this mode, as protecting the soil from the sun; and, by keeping it moist, favoring the vegetation underneath, whether spontaneous or artificial; whilst the straw itself is gradually decomposed into a manure. The objection to this mode, is the loss by evaporation, before this last effect is obtained. 3. Turning the straw at once under the surface of the earth. This would seem to be the best mode of managing manures generally; least of their substance being then lost. When the grain is trodden out from the straw it is left in a state easily admitting this operation. Some difficulty may attend it when the grain is threshed from the straw by the flail, or by the machines now in use, neither of which break the sraw sufficiently to pieces.

It may be remarked, with regard to this article of manure—1. That its weight is barely more than that of the grain. 2. That the grain is the part which makes the greatest draft on the fertility of the earth. 3. That the grain is for the most part not consumed within the farm It is found on trial, that a stock of wheat, as generally cut, including the chaff, and the grains borne by the stalk are pretty nearly of equal weight. The case is probably the same with rye, and, not very different with oats. The proportion of fertilizing matter in the straw to that in the grain, has not as far as I know, been brought to any satisfactory test. It is, doubtless, much less in the straw, which alone, in the case of wheat, is with us returnable in any form to the earth. This consideration, whilst it urges us to make the most of the article as a manure, warns us of its insufficiency.

The stubble, and the roots of the small grains, not being taken from the earth, may be regarded as relapsing into a fertility equal to that of which they deprive the earth. This remark is applicable to all cultivated plants, the roots of which are not an esculent part.

An eminent citizen and celebrated agriculturist* of this state, has among other instructive lessons, called the public attention to the value of the corn-stalk, as a manure. I am persuaded that he has not overrated it. And it is a subject of agreeable reflection, that an article which is so extensively cultivated as that of Indian corn, and which is so particularly exhausting, should be the one so capable of repairing the injury it does. The corn-stalk, as a fodder, is of great value. Not only the leaves, but the husk enclosing the ear, and the cob enclosed by it, are all more or less valuable food when duly preserved and dealt out to cattle. There is no better fodder than the leaves or blades for horses and oxen; nor any so much approved for sheep. The husk or shuck is a highly nourishing food for neat cattle. And the pickings of the stalk, even at a late season, and after much exposure to the weather, support them better than any of the straws. From the saccharine matter in the stalk, which is long retained about the joints, it cannot be doubted, that if cut early, or before exposure to the weather, into parts small enough for mastication, it would well repay, as a food for cattle, the labor required for it.

* Col. John Taylor.

The great value of the corn-stalk, in all its parts, as a fodder, was brought into full proof, by the use made of it during the late general failure of crops. It is to be hoped that the lesson will not be suffered to pass into oblivion.

But it is as a resource for fertilizing the soil that the corn-stalk finds the proper place here; and as such it merits particular notice, whether it be passed through animals or be prepared by fermentation in the farm yard, or be merely spread on the surface of the earth, the mode in which its effects must be least considerable. The same qualities which render every part of it nutricious to animals render it nutricious to the earth; and it is accompanied with the peculiar advantages—1. That the grain itself is mostly every where, and altogether in places distant from navigation, consumed within the farms producing it. 2. That as the grain is in greater proportion to the space on which it grows than most other grains, so the rest of the plant is in greater proportion to the grain than the rest of any other grain plant. The straw and chaff of the smaller grains, as already remarked, is, in weight, but about one half of the grain. The corn-stalk, with all its appurtenant offal, is of not less than three times, and, if taken early from the field, probably of not less than four or five times the weight of the grain belonging to it. 3. The fertilizing matter contained in the corn-stalk is greater in proportion to its weight, than that contained in the straw and offal of other grains, is to the weight of the straw and offal.

Would it be hazarding too much to say, that where a level surface, or the mode of cultivating a hilly one, prevents the rain from carrying off the soil, a restoration of an entire crop of Indian corn, in the form of manure, to the space producing it (there being no other intervening crop not so restored) would replace the fertility consumed by the crop, and maintain a perpetual productiveness? Reason the case of forest and fallow fields, where the spontaneous crop falls back of itself to the earth, and the Chinese example, where the cultivated crop is restored to the earth, all pronounce that such would be the effect. And yet the fact stares us in the face, that our most impoverished fields, even the most level of them, owe their condition more to the crop of Indian corn than to any other crops.

The cotton plant, which is so extensive a crop in the more southern and south western states, is but little cultivated in Virginia, and scarcely at all in this part of it. I am not able to say how far it is comparatively an exhausting crop. But it would seem to be more capable than any crop not wholly consumed within the farm, of preserving its fertility. The only part of the plant carried away is the cotton fibre, or woolly part, which bears an inconsiderable proportion to the other parts in weight, and, as may be inferred, in fertalizing matter also. The seed, alone, passing by the ball and the haulm, is of three times its weight, and contains the chief part of the oil in the plant. In the

countries where cotton makes the principal part of the crop, the superfluous seed must deserve great attention as a manure. Where the fields are level, or cultivated in horizontal drills, it might go far towards supporting a continued cropping, without a diminished fertility.

The sum of these remarks on cultivating poor land, and neglecting the means of keeping or making land rich, is, that if every thing grown on a soil is carried from it, it must become unproductive. That if every thing grown on it be directly or indirectly restored to it, it would not cease to be productive; and, consequently, that, according to the degree in which the one or the other practise takes place, a farm must be impoverished, or be permanently productive and profitable. Every acre made by an improved management to produce as much as two acres, is in effect the addition of a new acre, with the great advantages of contracting the space to be cultivated, and of shortening the distance of transportation between the fields and the barn or the farm yard. One of the Roman writers* on husbandry, enforces the obligation to an improving management, by a story of one Parydius, who had two daughters and a vineyard; when the elder was married he gave her a third part of the vineyard, notwithstanding which he obtained from two-thirds the same crop as from the whole. When his other daughter was married, he portioned her with the half of what remained; and still the produce of his vineyard was undiminished. The story, short as it is, contains a volume of instruction.

The plaster or gypsum, though not a manure within the farm itself, has been too long neglected as a fertilizing source. It is now beginning to take a high and just rank as such. The proofs of its efficacy are as incontestible as the causes of it are obscure. The experiments of a very distinguished chemist,† led him to the opinion that its substance enters into the substance of the plant. Without doubting the fact, it does not sufficiently account for the addition made to the size and weight of the plant, which greatly exceed the quantity of the plaster. It must therefore have some further mode of operating. Whether it be by neutralizing some noxious ingredient in the earth, one of the modes by which lime is supposed to operate; or by attracting and conveying to the plant food from the earth, the air, or water, or by exciting the plant to a more active use of its feeding powers, whatever they be; or by its eccretion and assimilation to the particular parts of plants on which these powers depend; thereby augmenting and strengthening those particular parts, and enabling the leading powers to give proportional augmentation to every other part: whether by any one or more of these processes, or by some other or others distinct from them all, the growth of plants be promoted by this mineral, remains, it would seem, to be yet explained. In the mean time, a more extensive use of it promises much advantage to our agriculture. I take it, however, that this advantage cannot be permanent, without making the increased product of the soil a source of manure to the soil. That the effect of the plaster will be continued indifinitely, under a constant removal of the whole crop from the soil, surpasses belief. It can scarcely fail to exhaust at length, the productive powers of the earth.—The period of time necessary for the purpose, may be uncertain, but that, as in the case of other mineral manures, lime and marle, such must sooner or later be the result, cannot well be so. The effect of pulverizing the earth by tillage, as practised by Tull, is stated to have been uninterrupted crops of wheat, without manure, for more than twenty years; which was regarded as a demonstration that tillage was a complete substitute for manure Supposing the statement to be free from error, the inference is certainly not warranted by the fact. We know that some of our soils, not naturally richer than the highly manured soils on which Tull probably commenced his tillage, will bear a succession of crops for an equal period; and we know as well that their fertility will not hold out forever. How long plaster, whatever be its mode of operation, will hold out, may not yet have been fully tried. But to make it permanently successful, it will be wise to take for granted, that it must be made a source of future manure, as well as of immediate productiveness. If the crop, as augmented by the plaster, be given back to the soil, the soil may be benefitted more than it would be, by the return of a crop not augmented by the plaster. And in this way fertility may be accellerated. The restoration of a crop increased by ordinary cultivation to the soil on which it grew, would, I presume, fertilize it more than the restoration of a smaller crop spontaneously produced; although in both cases the whole taken from the soil would return to it.

4. Among the means of aiding the productiveness of the soil, which have not received merited attention, is irrigation. In scarcely any country does this resource abound more than in the United States; nor is there any where there is so little sensibility to its value. The inconsiderable use made of it is chiefly by emigrants, particularly Germans, or the immediate descendants of them. I have understood that the market of Baltimore has been much benefitted in dry seasons by the irrigation introduced by exiles from St. Domingo. For a distinguished proof of the importance of the practise, I may refer to the fact which has been stated, that, in the neighborhood of Barcelona, in Spain, where a part of the land is under irrigation, and a part is not susceptible of it, both being otherwise of equal fertility, the part irrigated is of double price in the market. It is to be noted, indeed, that the climate is a dry one, and that the article cultivated is lucerne. But this is a plant, which, though much aided in its growth by moisture, is at the same time remarkable for the length of a tap root; and fitted by that, as well as by the absorbent qualities of its leaves, to flourish in a thirsty soil, and warm climate. Our particular district of country, abounding in springs, small streams, and suitable declivites, admits greatly of irrigation; and being generally of a thirsty nature, the more strongly invites the use of it.

I cannot but consider it an error in our husbandry, that oxen are too little used in place of horses.

Every fair comparison of the expense of the two animals, favors a preference of the ox. But the circumstance particularly recommending him is, that he can be supported when at work by grass and hay, whilst the horse requires grain and much of it, and the grain generally given him Indian corn, the crop which requires most labor, and greatly exhausts the land.

* Columella.
† Sir H. Davy.

From the best estimate I have been enabled to form, more than one half of the corn crop is consumed by horses, including the ungrown ones: and not less than one half by other than pleasure horses. By getting free from this consumption, one half the labor and of the wear of the land would be saved, or rather more than one half; for on most farms, one half of the crop of corn grows on not more than two-fifths, and sometimes a smaller proportion, of the cultivated fields; and the more fertile fields would of course be retained for cultivation. Every one can figure to himself the ease and conveniency of a revolution which would so much reduce the extent of cornfields; and substitute, for the labor bestowed on them, the more easy task of providing pasturage and hay.

But will not the ox himself, when kept at labor, require grain food as well as the horse? Certainly much less, if any. Judging from my own observation, I should say, that a plenty of good grass or good hay, would suffice without grain, where the labor is neither constant nor severe. But, I feel entire confidence in saying, that double set of oxen, alternately at work, and, therefore, half the time at rest, might be kept in good plight, without other food than plenty of good grass or good hay. And this double set would double the supply of beef tallow and leather, a set-off is found in that consideration for a double consumption of that kind of food.

The objections generally made to the ox, are, 1. That he is less tractable than the horse. 2, That he does not bear heat as well. 3. That he does not answer for the single plough used in our cornfields. 4 That he is slower in his movements. 5. That he is less fit for carrying the produce of the farm to market.

The first objection is certainly founded in mistake. Of the two animals, the ox is the more docile. In all countries where the ox is the ordinary draught animal, his docility is proverbial. His intractability, where it exists, has arisen from an occasional use of him only with long and irregular intervals; during which, the habit of discipline being broken, a new one is to be formed.

The 2d objection has as little foundation. The constitution of the ox accommodates itself as readily as that of the horse, to different climates. Not only in ancient Greece and Italy, but throughout Asia, as presented to us in ancient history, the ox and the plough are associated. At this day, in the warm parts of India and China, the ox, not the horse, is in the draught service. In every part of India, the ox always appears, even in the train of her armies. And in the hottest parts of the West Indias, the ox is employed in hauling the weighty produce to the sea-ports. The mistake here, as in the former case, has arisen from the effect of an occasional employment only, with no other than green food. The fermentation of this in the animal, heated by the weather and fretted by the discipline, will readily account for his sinking under his exertions; when green food even, much less dry, with a sober habit of labor, would have no such tendency.

The 3d objection also is not a solid one. The ox can, by a proper harness, be used singly as well as the horse, between the rows of Indian corn; and equally so used for other purposes. Experience may be safely appealed to on this point.

In the 4th place it is alleged, that he is slower in his movements. This is true, but in a less degree than is often taken for granted. Oxen that are well chosen for their form, are not worked after the age of about eight years, (the age at which they are best fitted for beef,) are not worked too many together, and are suitably matched, may be kept to nearly as quick a step as the horse—may I not say a step quicker than that of many of the horses we see at work, who, on account of their age, or leanness, occasioned by the costliness of the food they require, loose this advantage, where they might have once had it?

The last objection has most weight. The ox is not as well adapted as the horse to the road service, especially for long trips. In common roads, which are often soft, and sometimes suddenly become so, the form of his foot and the shortness of his leg, are disadvantages; and on roads frozen or turnpiked, the roughness of the surface in the former case, and its hardness in both cases, are inconvenient to his cloven hoof. But, where the distance to market is not great, where varying state of the roads and of the weather can be consulted; and the road service is in less proportion to the farm service, the objection is almost deprived of its weight. In cases where it most applies, its weight is diminished by the consideration, that a much greater proportion of service on the farm may be done by oxen than is now commonly done; and that the expense of shoeing them is little different from that of keeping horses shod. It is observable, that, when oxen are worked on a farm, over rough frozen ground, they suffer so much from the want of shoes, however well fed they may be, that it is a proper subject for calculation whether true economy does not require for them that accommodation, even on the farm, as well as for the horses.

A more important calculation is, whether, in many situations, the general saving, by substituting the ox for the horse, would not balance the expense of hiring the carriage of the produce to market. In the same scale with the hire is to be put the value of the grass and hay consumed by the oxen; and in the other scale, the value of the corn, amounting to one half of the crop, and the grass and hay consumed by the horses. Where the market is not distant, the value of the corn saved would certainly pay for the carriage of the market portion of the crop and balance. moreover, any difference between the value of the grass and hay consumed by oxen, and the value of the oxen when slaughtered for beef. In all these calculations, it is doubtless proper not to loose sight of the rule, that farmers ought to avoid paying others for doing what they can do for themselves. But, the rule has its exceptions; and the error, if it be committed, will not lie in departing from the rule, but in not selecting aright the cases which call for the departure. It may be remarked, that the rule ought to be more or less general, as there may or may not be at hand a market, by which every produce of labor is convertible into money. In the old countries this is much more the case than in new; and in new, much more the case near towns than at a distance from them In this, as in most other parts of our country, a change of circumstances is taking place, which renders every thing raised on a farm more convertible into money than formerly; and as the change proceeds, it will be more and more a point for consideration, how far the labor in

doing what might be bought, could earn more in another way, than the amount of the purchase. Still, it will always be prudent, for reasons which every experienced farmer will understand, to lean to the side of doing, rather than hiring or buying what may be wanted.

The mule seems to be, in point of economy, between the ox and the horse; preferable to the latter, infertor to the former; but so well adapted to particular services, that he may find a proper place on many farms. He is liable to the objection which weighs most against the ox—he is less fitted than the horse for road service.

5. A more manifest error in the husbandry of the older settlements is, that of keeping too many neat cattle on their farms. As a farm should not be cultivated farther than it can be continued in good heart, the stock of cattle should not be in greater number than the resources of food will keep in good plight. If a poor farm be unprofitable, so are poor cattle. It is particularly the case with the milch cows. When the whole of the food given them is necessary to snpport a lean existence, no part can be spared for the milk pail. The same food given to the proper number, will only keep them in a thrifty state, but unable them to supply the dairy. Even the manure from several poor cattle is worth less than that from a single fat one. The remark holds equally good with respect to the hide.

The misjudged practice in question, is another effect of inattention to the change of circumstances through which our country has passed. Originally, the forest abounded in rich herbage, which fed and fatted, without expense, all the cattle that could be brought through the winter into the spring It was natural at that time to keep as large a stock as could be preserved through the winter. For a long time past, the forest is scarcely any where a resource for more than two or three months; and in many places, no resource at all. A greater difficulty is often felt in finding summer, than winter snbsistence. And yet where no enclosed pasturage is provided to take the place of the extinct one in the forest, the habit, founded in reasons which have entirely ceased, is but too generally retained. The same number of cattle is aimed at, as if the forest was as ready to receive and fatten them now as formerly. The size and appearance of our neat cattle compared with those for which nature or good husbandry has provided sufficient food, are proofs that their food is not in proportion to their number, and that where the food cannot be increased, the number ought to be reduced.

6. Of all the errors in our rural economy none is perhaps so much to be regretted, because none is so difficult to be repaired, as the injudicious and excessive destruction of timber and firewood. It seems never to have occured that the fund was not inexhaustible, and that a crop of trees could not be raised as quickly as one of wheat or corn

Here again we are presented with a proof of the continuance of a practice for which the reasons have ceased. When our ancestors arrived, they found the trees of the forest the great obstacle to their settlement and cultivation. The great effort was of course to destroy the trees. It would seem that they contracted and transmitted an antipathy to them: for the trees were not even spared around the dwellings, where their shade would have been a comfort, and their beauty an ornament; and it is of late years only, that these advantages have been attended to. In fact, such has been the inconsiderate and indiscriminate use of the axe, that this country is beginning to feel the calamity as much as some of the old countries of Europe: and it will soon be forced to understand the difficulty of curing it. A vast proportion of the farms on the eastern side of the Blue Ridge, and some even on the other side, have but a scanty fund for present use, and are without a fund for permanent use. And to increase the evil, the remnant of timber and fuel on many farms, inadequate as it is, is left in situations remote from the dwelling, and incapable of being divided, according to the divisions and subdivisions into which all the larger farms must be rapidly forced by the law of descents, the impulse of parental affection, and other causes.

It is high time for many farmers even in this quarter, and still more so in the country below us, to take this subject into serious consideration. Prudence will no longer delay to economize what remains of woodland; to foster the second growths where taken place in convenient spots; and to commence, where necessary, plantations of the trees recommended by their utility and quickness of growth.

I wish I could more satisfactorily estimate the proportion of woodland which ought to belong to every farm, as a permanent fund of timber for building and repairing houses; for fences, where live or stone ones may not be introduced; for wheel carriages, and the other apparatus needed on farms. The estimate is the more difficult, because it must be varied according to many circumstances, particularly, according to the nature of the soil and the kind of trees at once suited to it, and to the uses to be made of them Estimating the crop of wood yielded by an acre at twenty cords, the period of production at twenty years, and the average number of cords annually consumed at a fireplace, including the culinary consumption, at ten cords; every fire place on a farm will require ten acres for a permanent supply of fuel. For the other necessities of a farm several acres more ought to be added.

An estimate in a very sensible publication, entitled "The New England Farmer," makes seventeen acres necessary for a fireplace. The winters there are longer, and the climate may be less favorable to the quick growth of trees. But their houses are generally closer than with us; to say nothing of a more judicious management than can be enforced on most of our farms.

To this catalogue of errors in our rural economy, considerable as it is, many I fear might be added. The task of pointing them out, I gladly leave to others, less incapable than I have shown myself to be, by the very imperfect manner in which I have performed the one on which I ventured.

BEAR LEADING.

[There was anciently a custom of training BEARS, and of *leading* them, so as to discipline them to a habit of playing tricks for the amusement of lords and ladies, courts and courtiers. From the history of this old sportive custom, Mr. Duane, the editor of the *Aurora*, has borrowed an idea, which he applies, in a vein of ridicule, to new members of Congress, and to old ones who

are supposed to lead the new ones This leading, as he intimates, is promoted by the executive of the United States, who is depicted as thus drawing novices to his side and corrupting the representatives of the people.

If it be admitted that the executive is sufficiently adroit to draw towards himself, in such a manner, the members of the national legislature, it must follow, as a necessary consequence, that the executive is able, intelligent, and dexterous; or, that the representatives of the people are all fools, and that they are wholly ignorant of public men and public measures until they arrive at Washington in their legislative capacities.

That Mr. Duane does not consider the President and his secretaries as enlightened men and men of talents, is apparent from the characters which he has drawn of them.

In a series of numbers which have been recently published in the *Aurora*, entitled "Principles, not Men," Mr. Duane pourtrays President Monroe as a weak man, who has thrown himself into the hands of his Secretary of State, Mr. John Quincy Adams; and of Mr. Adams himself he declares, that "many of the clerks, "who receive only one-fifth of his salary, are "as competent to execute the duties of the "station as himself," and adds, that by means of his native intellectual qualities, unaided by extrinsic circumstances, "he would never have "emerged above the surface of a village law-"yer, or a school master." This, it will be admitted, is nothing like flattery. The pictures of two other secretaries are no better. Mr. Crawford, the Secretary of the Treasury, is represented as filling "a station, for the dis-"charge of the duties of which he is *utterly* "disqualified." And Mr. Calhoun, likewise, we are told, occupies "a station for which he "has not *one* necessary qualification that is not "possessed a thousand times more completely "by ten or a dozen Clerks in the Department."

If *such* is *really* a genuine portrait of the cabinet of the United States, the members of it are, indeed, feeble enough; and the wonder is, how they are enabled to captivate either political cubs, bears, or bear-leaders. *Some* of the members of Congress, at least, (Mr. Clay, for example,) have not been yet *caught*, unless they have got entangled in the *net* of Mr. Duane: and it is moreover surprising that the editor of the *Aurora*, considering what a tremendous shillala he carries, has not, with the many blows which he has aimed at them, demolished the pigmies who, as he alleges, occupy the chief seats of power.

But, although we cannot acquiesce in Mr. Duane's views, if, in truth, he can be regarded as *serious* in his views, we have no objection to laugh at his drollery, and to enable our readers to laugh too. We, therefore, extract the subjoined account which he gives of the process of Bear Leading; confessing, at the same time, that the perusal has afforded us a good deal of fun.

From the Aurora of 20th of August, 1818.

The following is the process in the ministerial art of *bear-leading*. Whenever a new member arrives at the seat of government, it is the duty of the *chief bear-leader*, either by himself or some subordinate (for there are *grades of eminence* and *inferiority* even in this *science*,) to find out his lodgings, or if he has not lodgings, to invite him to take a room or a bed at his lodging house, until he has time to look round him; offers of civility of this kind, are well adapted to make an impression, it is natural to place to the account of *hospitality, generosity*, and it tends to give an exalted idea of liberality and politeness in members of congress.

By these means it is contrived to fix the new member in the same lodging with one or more of the *bear-leaders*, and the members generally *herding*, for the purpose of economy or caucusing, the *young cub* is put under a course of *training*; due information is given him of the *etiquette at the palace*; the *simplicity* of presidential manners, his *frankness*; his desire to serve every body; his personal disinterestedness; the sacrifice he makes in serving for 25,000 dollars a year; the fatigue and labor required by a station so eminent; comprehending twenty republics; and beside that the keeping up a watch upon Russia, and Sweden, England, and Brazil, France, and Holland, Spain, and the buccaneers; besides the necessary attention to the management of the state legislatures, and silencing some presses and putting others in motion, the profound labors of the finances, and the vast talents and industry required to manage them; beside the navy, and the army, and the Indians.

In short, the young member is naturally enough overwhelemed with admiration;—like Goldsmith's schoolmaster—

> And still they gazed and still the wonder grew,
> How one small head could carry all he knew.

Should the member have taken a lodging *before he is caught*, then if he cannot be prevailed upon to change it, care is taken to place one or more vigorous bear leaders at the same lodgings; and to keep him so constantly occupied that there shall be no opportunity for his obtaining information on the opposite side. To secure this the better, in congress, care is taken to provide a seat for the *young member* next to one, or if convenient, between two full practised bear leaders; by this means his experience of forms enables the bear leaders to instruct him; and to make him acquainted with the great men who are friends of the president; and those who are malcontents Due means are taken to warn the novice against certain persons who are ambitious; and to insinuate any merchantable slander that may serve the purpose, when there cannot be any substantial charge against a *dangerous opposition* member.

The next step is an introduction to the president, which also serves to show the zeal and dili-

gence of the bear leader himself: and then follows the introduction to the heads of departments. The young novice is now placed on the president's dinner roll; and care is taken when he is invited that the *bear leader* is invited the same day. The introduction of topics on such occasions it may be easily imagined is suited to the purpose.

VENEZUELA AND TERRA FIRMA.

The New York Evening Post, of the 24th inst. furnishes the following summary:

The Aurora of Friday last, gives two bulletins from the independent armies of Venezuela, of the 10th and 27th of June, announcing a victory obtained by gen. Paez, over a strong detachment of the royal army commanded by gen. La Torre. The action was fought on the 2d of May, on the plain of Cogeda. The account states that the whole of the enemy's infantry and cavalry was cut to pieces—1000 men fell upon the field in a very few minutes; a great quantity of arms and stores of every department of the military, and a great number of prisoners, were captured. Brigadier Correa, chief of the general staff; col. Gonzales Velia, commanding the regiment of Castile, with several other Spanish officers of rank, fell on the field of battle. The royal general and chief, La Torre, received two wounds. All the chiefs of the dragoons of the union, those of the hussars, and of the lancers of the king, bit the dust. The patriot loss, though not great, is stated to have been severe.

The bulletin states that "the Spaniards, strong in infantry, cover the defiles of the mountains, while our superiority in cavalry, commanded all the plains in the interior of Venezuela; they have lost their generals in chief and principle officers of rank; almost all the European troops, and about 3000 of the troops raised here, with all their magazines, provisions, and equipage for cavalry have fallen into our hands."

It appears from the same papers, that the royalists had a few days previously, obtained some considerable advantages. The bulletin says—"On our side we have suffered heavy losses, better than 1000 infantry and 500 cavalry, a considerable quantity of our arms and ammunition, destroyed and unservicable, and many gallant officers."

ALABAMA.

The New York Evening Post, of the 24th inst. says—We learn from the captain and passengers who arrived at quarantine last Saturday in the schr. Rover, from Mobile, which place they left the 29th of July, that many of the inhabitants at Blakely who have recently settled there from the northren states, have been attacked with fever and ague, and billious fever, not having got accustomed to the climate. The creoles and natives of the place had not been affected in the least, nor was the sickness even among the new settlers as fatal as has been reported. Most of those who had been attacked, were convalescent. No death had occurred when our informants left there, since those mentioned by the *Cora*, and one of those, Mr. Root, of the firm of Dunham and Root, was a resident of and died at Mobile, where the same sickness prevailed, and many deaths had taken place. Mr. Burnham, of the firm of North and Burnham, of Mobile, died on board of the Rover, 6 days out, with billious fever. The northren people had mostly left Mobile, and many others had shut up their stores and gone into the interior. The captain and crew, and most of the passengers in the *Rover* were sick when they left Mobile, but are fast recovering.

The crops of cotton in Alabama were generally promising. One of the passengers in the Rover, was at Pensacola on the 20th ult. He states that no business was doing at that place except speculating in real estate. Several cargoes of goods had arrived there from New Orleans, and not being able to effect a sale, had returned. The Spanish creoles at Pensacola, were much incensed against gen. Jackson and the Americans. A detachment of mounted men were continually scouring the country between Pensacola, the Tensa and Alabama rivers. No orders had reached there for re-delivering that place to the Spaniards.

EDITOR'S CABINET.

Death-Warrants.—The following article appeared in the National Intelligencer of the 18th instant:

The Federal Gazette of Baltimore, censures the delay which has occurred in executing the sentence of death on the mail robbers convicted in that city in May, and imputes it to the refusal or neglect of the president to sign what is called a death warrant. It has not been usual, we believe, for the executive of the United States to issue any such warrant, in capital convictions—we do not at present recollect a single case—Mr. Jefferson, we know, uniformly declined to do so. Indeed, it has been but seldom necessary, as the federal courts, acting in conformity to the practice of the states in which they are held, generally direct the execution of their own sentences, without any sanction from the executive authority. In Maryland, however, where capital convictions are executed in virtue only of a warrant from the governor, the judges of the federal court conformed to the state practice, and referred the execution of the sentence pronounced on the mail robbers to an order from the president, who, we understand, consents to yield to what seems to be required by the Maryland practice, without which the sentence would necessarily remain unexecuted until the next term of the circuit court of Maryland.

The determination of the executive to issue a death-warrant is, we doubt not, founded on the best of motives; and is, we presume, the result of a consultation with the Attorney General, who, in a case of this kind, is his legal adviser. But the genius of Mr. Wirt is too poetical to be profound, and we should place more confidence in his opinion upon a question in the *Belles Lettres* than we should in his advice touching the essential forms of law. We mean not, however, by this remark, to invalidate Mr. Wirt's claim to the reputation of being a man of fine talents.

One substantial reason why the President should not issue a death-warrant, is to be found in the statement of the National Intelligencer itself. "*It has not been usual.*" And Mr. Jefferson, who is a lawyer of ability, "*uniformly declined to do so.*" The issuing of a death-warrant is,

therefore, a NOVELTY—an *innovation* upon the practice of the courts of justice of the United States. But, it seems, the process of execution by death-warrant is the "*Maryland* practice." And what does that signify? The President is President of the *United States*, and not of Maryland in particular: The rule of his conduct ought to be uniform and *national*, according to the laws of the United States, and conformably to the rules which, under those laws, are established by their courts. The executive cannot divide himself, and be, at one time President according to the "Marvland practice," and, at another, President according to the practice of the United States.

In relation to crimes and punishments, the President is the *fountain of mercy*. Why should we disturb the purity and serenity of that blessed stream, by compelling him to be the immediate source of execution? The innovation in the present case cannot be to favor life: It is, in fact, designed to hasten the death of the criminals; for, as the National Intelligencer says, "without the death-warrant, the sentence would necessarily remain unexecuted until the next term of the circuit court of Maryland." No precedent can be drawn, by analogy, from the practice in the case of courts martial, for the authority which the President exercises in relation to their sentences is expressly given to him by the act of the 10th of April, 1806, for establishing rules and articles for the government of the armies of the United States; and he is, besides, by the terms of that act, in the cases of life and death submitted to him, a part of the court martial, inasmuch as the sentence is not complete until he approves it—which is not the case with sentences in our ordinary courts of justice.

We are very far from wishing to give pain to any of the officers of the government: we esteem and respect them too much for that: but we consider it our sacred duty to guard our institutions from the introduction of *novelties* of a pernicious tendency. In no case ought the President to interpose to execute the judgment or sentence of a court of justice, unless to order out the militia or military in support of the civil authorities. It is not a rational inference to say that the issuing the death-warrant is appertinent to the exercise of the function of mercy. If such an inference could be supported, it would imply that the executive is a regular tribunal of appeal from the sentences of courts for the trial of criminal offences; and the culprit, instead of considering his fate fixed by the sentence of the ordinary court, would look up to the President, *as a matter of course*, for a pardon. Conflicting statements would arise: the legality of the decisions of the courts would be called in question: the President would be beset on all hands; and, in proportion to the extent of his humane feelings, in that proportion would there be danger of a hurtful relaxation in the execution of the laws of the United States. To these might be added, the inconveniencies of distance,* the negligence and irregularities of officers in certifying up to the Executive the proceedings on each trial, and the certainty that, when circumstances require it, application will always be made in time for mercy by the convict or his friends; all which demonstrate the impropriety of adopting the practice of issuing death-warrants; for which, in reality, there is no specific legal authority whatever.

The custom, with respect to executions for criminal offences, has been heretofore plain and simple. The laws prescribe that certain offences shall be punished with death: the 32d section of the act of the 30th of April, 1790, provides that the manner of inflicting the punishment of death shall be by hanging the person convicted by the neck until dead. By the act of the 24th of September, 1789, marshals are directed to be appointed—(and by the 9th section of the act of the 28th of February, 1795, they are invested with the same powers, in executing the laws of the United States, as sheriffs exercise with respect to the laws of a state)—and these marshals and their deputies are the special officers for executing the sentences and judgments of the courts. If a convict is entitled to clemency, the court, or the jury, or respectable citizens, never fail to represent his case to the President, who pardons or remits, as he deems proper. No abuse, it is believed, has ever crept in under this practice; and that, we should suppose, is one good reason for adhering to it.

In England, whence we derive most of our customs and forms of judicial and executive proceedings, the practice generally corresponds with the opinion which we have here advanced—as the following extract from received authority will show:

"Execution of criminals must, in all cases, as well capital as otherwise, be performed by the sheriff or his deputy, whose warrant for so doing was, anciently, by precept *under hand and seal of the judge*, as is still practised in the court of the lord high steward upon the execution of a peer. 2 *Hale*, 409. Though in the court of the peers in parliament it is done by writ from the king. Afterwards it was established, that, in case of life, *the judges may command execution to be done without any writ*. Finch, 478. And now the usage is for *the judge to sign the calendar*, a list of all the prisoners' names, with the separate judgments in the margin, which is left with the sheriff: the sheriff, on receipt of this warrant, is to do execution within a convenient time, which in the coun-

* In case of conviction at New Orleans, the culprit might always calculate, with certainty, on a respite of two months at least.

try is left at large: in London, the recorder, [who is part of the court] after reporting to the king in person the case of the several prisoners, and receiving his royal pleasure that *the law must take its course*, issues his warrant to the sheriffs, directing them to do execution at the day and place assigned. See 4 *State Trials*, 332. *Fost.* 43. 4 *Comm.* 403."

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Kentucky Chivalry.—We find, by a newspaper which we have lately received, as the merchants say to their correspondents, "in due course of mail," that the spirit and the forms of chivalry, which, in olden time, were so prevalent in the state of Kentucky, are not extinct, although, from the rapid progress of intellectual refinement in that part of the country, they appear now, in native purity, only among the more ignorant and vulgar portion of the citizens. Indeed, we are inclined to the belief that the upper classes of the community never were infected with that spirit at all.

The customs of this Kentucky chivalry have been, we are afraid, preserved solely by tradition; for, after a long and tedious search, we cannot find a single printed book that gives any account of them.

Tradition, then, affirms that, in days of yore, whenever a number of Kentuckians were gathered together, for *spiritual* purposes, or, to speak in the vernacular tongue, for the purpose of *drinking whiskey*, some one among them, stimulated by the ardent liquid, was sure to step forward and utterly defy the whole company, without the previous sound of fife, drum, tabor, flute, or trumpet, in something of the following strain:

"Here stand I, Lawrence Leatherboy; a true "Keutuckian bred and born; five feet eight "inches in my stocking feet. If any man shall "say that he has a handsomer sister, a prettier "sweetheart, a better rifle, or that he can shoot "truer than I can, I'll whip him."

This challenge, which hardly ever failed of its effect, would draw forth a champion of equal might and courage; who would dash at the challenger, with the subjoined brief harangue:

"Let me at him. [Every body cleared the "way.] Here I come: half horse, half alligator, "and a *leetle* tipped with the snapping turtle"

The fight then began—rough and tumble. The conqueror, however, was always generous. He would raise his antagonist from the ground; shake hands with him, laugh with him, and drink with him, as cheerfully as ever. To speak truth, there is little of malice in the heart of a Kentuckian.

In process of time, as this spirit of chivalry began to subside, the single combat, which was the consequence of it, began to subside also; and for pugilism they substituted poetry. The contest then was not, which should flog the other, but which of the opponents should express himself in the most sublime poetical imagery: accordingly, in their occasional and mirthful assemblies, an individual would start up, and roar out "I am a team of horses." Another would follow, with "I am a thundergust." A third [but this more recently] would exclaim, "I am a steam boat." A fourth, triumphantly rising, would shout, "I am an earthquake, and will swallow you all up." The three first being thus swallowed up, Earthquake, of course, won the day.

That this spirit of Kentucky chivalry, although decayed, is not wholly extinct, is manifest from the tenor of the annexed extract of a certificate, which is dated "New Castle, Henry county, Ky. July 7, 1818," and is signed by five persons. We omit the concluding part of the certificate, as the poetical imagery of Mr. Allen, as there specified, is somewhat liable to the imputation of blasphemy:

"Whereas there has been considerable noise made in this county respecting some very presumptous language made use of by Charles H. Allen, in a public controversy with E. D. George in this town, which language said C. H. Allen has both publicly and privately denied, and dared and defied any person to come forward and say he did use such language—We therefore feel ourselves bound to let the public know the truth of what we heard.

"We do hereby certify, that about the 8th or 10th of June, said dispute took place between C. H. Allen and E. D. George, and in said dispute C. H. Allen stated *positively* that he was a *horse*, and he did defy man or mortal! and if the Angel Gabriel was to come down with all his might and power he did not value him!!"

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Mad Dogs.—There is great complaint of mad dogs. Persons have been bitten by them in New York and Philadelphia. A mad dog also made his appearance in Baltimore, but was killed. It is singular that, whilst so much anxiety is manifested to find out a remedy for *hydrophobia*, measures of an effectual kind are not adopted to *prevent* the disease altogether. All dogs of pleasure ought to be prohibited; at least until a cure for hydrophobia is discovered. Dogs are *expensive* animals; and what would support three of *them*, would, at least, support one *man*. Those who love the canine, more than they do the human, race, let them withdraw from society and erect a *dog colony*.

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Sea Serpent, &c.—Capt. Rich lately went from Boston, in pursuit of the Sea Serpent, with three boats manned for the purpose of taking that animal He met the Serpent off Squam, chased him about seven hours, and closed with him. The snake passed directly under the bows of captain Rich's boat, who drove a harpoon into him two feet deep: but the creature went off with such

velocity, that he broke that part of the boat thro' which the rope passed, and drew out the harpoon. Capt. Rich was wounded in the hand. It is now said the monster has *no* scales, and *no* bunches on his back. *Quere.* Can this be the *same* serpent as that of which we have heard so much? A captain of a whaling vessel, who had arrived at Boston with his fishing gear complete, having unsuccessfully advertised for employment in the business of snake-catching, went out on his own account, and falling in with what he thought the serpent, attacked and took it; but it turned out to be a *Whale*, 45 feet long.

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Commerce &c.—The editor of the Boston Centinel says—"We have been favored with a copy of the *Ordinance* of the governor of Guadaloupe (Count De Lardenoy) concerning the sequestration of all foreign manufactured goods, in that island and dependencies, until the further order of the King. It is dated July 13th, 1818, and directs the immediate seizure and sequestration of all goods manufactured of cotton, linen, &c whether found in the shops or depots. Notice of this seizure had been previously given to take place at the time it did; and all the custom house, civil, and municipal officers, the police, and navy, were required to give every assistance in the rigid execution of the order. Its ostensible object is the encouragement of the manufactures of old France.

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Coffee.—Capt. Pezant, arrived at Charleston, S. C. from Port-Rico (a Spanish island) states that the retail price of coffee there was *one dollar* per pound!

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Summer Recreations—Major gen. Brown is on a visit to Boston, and intends to view Fort Independence, accompanied by the governor of Massachusetts and his staff.

Gov. Clinton, with the mayor of N. York and their friends, proceeded lately on a tour to the eastward. It is now said that gov. Clinton's wound will not admit of his continuing his journey to Boston.

Judge Dessasure and gen. Rutledge, of South Carolina, and Mr. Bassett, M. C. from Virginia, with major Haskel, of the latter state, are at Boston.

Mr. Crawford, Secretary of the Treasury, lately passed through Augusta, Georgia, on his way to his plantation in Oglethorpe county, in that state.

Gov. Brooks, of Massachusetts, intends to review the militia of the district of Maine during the present season.

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Official Notices, &c.—The viscount de Quabeck, recently arrived at New York from Antwerp, as charge-des-affaires of his majesty the King of the Netherlands, has proceeded to Philadelphia on his way to Washington.—He will probably meet the Secretary of State there, and thus render it unnecessary for him to prosecute his journey further south for the present. The functions of Mr. Ten Cate will, of course, cease, as charge-des-affaires, upon the recognition of the viscount in that quality.

In virtue of an act of the 14th of April, 1818, for regulating the staff of the Army, a considerable alteration has taken place in that branch of the military service. Instead of a quarter master-general for each division of the army, neither of which resided at the Metropolis, there is now a quarter-master general, who keeps his office at Washington. This place is filled by Col. Thomas S. Jesup, of the third Infantry, and lately adjutant-general of the northern division; in which last mentioned post he has been succeeded by Col. Roger Jones, by recent appointment of the President.—By the same act of Congress, the mode of furnishing supplies to the army has been varied. In lieu of contractors, there is to be a commissary general and assistants, who are to be subject to martial law. The place of commissary general is filled by Col. George Gibson, late quarter-master general of the southern division: his office will also be established at the seat of government. In addition to these, the act of the 14th of April authorizes the appointment of a surgeon general. The surgeon general is Dr. Joseph Lovell, late hospital surgeon in the medical department of the army. Surgeon general Lovell resides in Washington, and occupies rooms, we understand, in the spacious buildings of *Strother's Hotel.* These arrangements, it is expected, will much improve the condition of the staff of the army, and give greater efficiency to the laws for regulating the military establishment generally.

Tuesday last, the 25th of August, being St. Louis' day, M. Hyde de Neuville, the minister of France, gave an evening party in honor of the occasion, which was well attended by those of the diplomatic corps then in town, and by a numerous and fashionable assemblage of ladies and gentlemen.

On Monday last, the 24th instant, at noon, the corner stone of the Central Building of the Capitol was laid, under the personal inspection of the commissioner, Samuel Lane, Esq. No stone of the central building had been laid when the Capitol was consumed on the 24th of August, 1814.

Mr. Adams, the Secretary of State, left town yesterday morning, on a journey to the eastward.

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London news, to the 18th of July, mentions that the queen of England was dangerously ill and expected soon to die.